DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 232 240 CS 504 323

AUTHOR Fairhurst, Gail; And Others
TITLE The Use of Face Support in Controlling Ineffective Performance.
PUB DATE May 83
NOTE 51p.; Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the International Communication Association (Dallas, TX, May 26-30, 1983).
PUB TYPE Reports - Research/Technical (143) -- Speeches/Conference Papers (150)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC03 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Administrators; *Body Language; *Communication Research; Communication Skills; Employer Employee Relationship; *Job Performance; *Organizational Communication; Supervisory Methods
IDENTIFIERS *Facial Expressions; *Superior Subordinate Relationship

ABSTRACT

A study was conducted to examine the face support and control moves that occur in a manager's communication to a poorly performing subordinate over the sequence of his or her violation. Face support was defined according to the degree of approval (positive face) and the degree of freedom (autonomy) given to the poor performers to define a course of action. Seventy bank managers were interviewed about a recent employee performance problem they had attempted to control. The messages used by the managers over the time the problem occurred were coded according to the scheme devised by S. L. Kline. Cluster analysis produced two patterns of face support used by managers: (1) Direct Disapproval (criticism and reprimands) and No Autonomy (threats and orders) used from the start of the control sequence, and (2) Indirect Disapproval and Autonomy for the first action, which then was abandoned for the more punitive approach. The Indirect Disapproval consisted of questions to the subordinate as to why the problem was occurring and, to a lesser extent, castigations that assumed the subordinate was misguided or unaware. Other findings showed that performance ratings of employees were positively correlated to the level of positive face support provided, and autonomy was positively correlated with the length of time between problem reoccurrences. (FL)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED232240

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)
X This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.
☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.
• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official NIE position or policy.

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
Gail Fairhurst

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

The Use of Face Support in Controlling Ineffective Performance[1]

Gail Fairhurst (Ph.D., University of Oregon, 1978)
is an Assistant Professor of Communication at the
University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, Ohio 45221.

Steven G. Green (Ph.D., University of Washington, 1976)
is an Associate Professor of Organizational Behavior
at the University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, Ohio 45221.

B. Kay Snavely (M.B.A., Miami University, 1981)
is a Doctoral Student in the Management Department
at the University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, Ohio 45221.

[1]The authors would like to thank Lou Cusella, Fred Jablin, Dean Hewes, Roger Stuebing, and Sharon Spring for their help in the conduct of this research.

CS 504323

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to describe the use of face support in managerial communication on controlling ineffective performance. Face support was defined according to the degree of approval (positive face), and the degree of freedom given to poor performers to define a course of action (autonomy). Seventy bank branch managers were interviewed about a recent performance problem they attempted to control. The messages used by these managers over the time the problem occurred were coded according to Kline's positive face and autonomy face support coding schemes. This study reports the most likely combinations of positive face and autonomy strategies used throughout the control sequence. Further, several correlates of positive face and autonomy were examined. Among the most prominent, the performance rating of the employee was positively correlated with the level of positive face support provided, and was tentatively found to moderate the cognition-autonomy face support relationship. Autonomy was also positively correlated with the length of time in between problem recurrence.

An important indicator of managerial effectiveness is the performance of the work unit. Thus, managers feel compelled to correct the performance problems of members that threaten the unit's intended operation. In a recent survey of Fortune 500 firms, 97% of the managers reported experiencing the problem of ineffective subordinates, 96% within the past year (Stoeberl & Schniederjans, 1981). While poor performing subordinates appear to be only a minority of the employees that a manager supervises, it appears that these subordinates tend to be "repeat offenders" prompting an iterative sequence of subordinate rule violations and managerial control actions over an extended period of time (BNA, 1978; Liden, 1981; Green, Fairhurst & Liden, 1981; O'Reilly & Weitz, 1980).

Managers can attempt to control the poor performer with actions as lenient as ignoring the problem to actions as severe as termination. To the subordinate, the manager in the control process represents the organization with its multiple rule systems and is the enforcer of them when they are broken. Thus, as noted in the control literature, the control of ineffective performance is simultaneously bureaucratic and interpersonal. (See for example, Ouchi, 1980; Reeves & Woodward, 1970.) Moreover, these authors, and others, feel that in the final analysis, it is the interpersonal aspects of control that are critical (Green & Liden, 1980; Camman & Nadler, 1977; Miner & Brewer, 1976). As in any interpersonal process, there are a variety of task, relational, and identity issues which are either explicitly or implicitly addressed in the communication between a manager and a subordinate. While past research on controlling ineffective performance has focused on characteristics of the subordinate (Rosen & Jerdee, 1974; Larwood, Rand & Den Hovanessian, 1979; O'Reilly & Weitz, 1980), characteristics of the managers (O'Reilly & Weitz, 1980), the seriousness of the performance problem (Elkouri & Elkouri, 1973; Mitchell & Wood, 1979); the attributions of the manager (Mitchell, Green & Wood, 1981), and the context

within which the process is embedded (Green & Liden, 1980; Stoeberl & Schniederjans, 1981), it has largely ignored the communication between managers and subordinates except on a superficial task level. At this level communication is labeled either as "informal discussion" or "verbal warning." Since these steps are usually preliminary to more serious control measures such as probation, transfer, or termination, they are usually counted rather than examined in their own right. (See for example, O'Reilly & Weitz, 1980; Green, Fairhurst & Liden, 1981).

The failure to examine the communication has precluded knowledge of such things as how identities are negotiated in this setting, especially the subordinate's, and how relational control is shared. These are important issues in the control of ineffective performance because a break in the rules does not only indicate that some task was not performed or performed incorrectly. Rather, it simultaneously calls into question the subordinate's identity as a worthy, competent employee and the degree to which the subordinate will be allowed to share in control of the relationship by defining his/her own role expectations. Thus, in the correction of a performance problem, the subordinate's identity and control of the relationship both become objects of renegotiation, and thus warrant examination. Both the literature on superior-subordinate communication and the performance feedback literature lend support to this notion.

The literature on superior-subordinate communication recognizes the need of managers to maintain and strengthen the self-esteem of subordinates which is one aspect of "consideration" behavior (see for example Jablin, 1979; Bass, 1981; Fleishman, 1957; Fleishman, Harris & Burtt, 1955; Fleishman & Harris, 1962; Lawshe & Nagle, 1953; Trieb & Marion, 1969; Evans, 1968; House & Filey, 1971), as well as the need of managers to share in the control of the relationship by granting autonomy to subordinates particularly those who possess growth potential and

motivation (Hackman & Oldham, 1975; Graen, Cashman, Ginsberg & Schiemann, 1977; Graen, Novak & Sommerkamp, 1981; Jablin, 1979). Similarly, performance feedback functions to motivate the employee through the information/reinforcement value of feedback regarding one's competency, and to direct behavior so as to be in line with appropriate goal directed activity (Ilgen, Fisher & Taylor, 1979; Deci, 1975; Cusella, 1980; Payne & Hauty, 1955; Annett, 1969). Ilgen, et al. (1979) and Cummings (1976) suggest that high performers need feedback that emphasizes competency and personal control, whereas average to low performers need the emphasis to be placed on extrinsic rewards resulting from performance.

Brown and Levinson (1978) and more recently Kline (1981) provide a useful starting place for the examination of such identity and relational issues in control settings. Brown and Levinson have conceptualized the degree of approval of another's self image as "positive face" and the freedom granted to another to define a course of action and/or self image as "negative face." To maintain "face" is to preserve the public self-image that a person claims (Goffman, 1955). All interactions can be characterized by some degree of face support although it is usually secondary to the performance of some task (e.g., correcting a performance problem). Goffman (1955, p. 313) argues that a person will have two points of view: "a defensive orientation towards saving his own face and a protective orientation towards saving the other's face." In an ethnographic study of three unrelated cultures, including the Anglo-American culture, Brown and Levinson (1978) articulated a host of positive and negative face maintenance strategies, substantiating the occurrence of certain universals in verbal interaction. Kline (1981) lends further order and elaboration to these strategies and derives two coding schemes, one which is useful in conceptualizing how managers might approve or disapprove of a subordinate's self image, and a second for refusing or granting autonomy (i.e., relational control), while simultaneously correcting the performance problem.

Kline's first coding scheme is for Brown and Levinson's "positive face," which is the amount of approval or disapproval given to the positive self-image that another claims. The scheme ranges from a direct condemnation of another's face through such things as criticism, reprimands, ridicule, and accusation to direct approval of another's face through such things as praise for past efforts, compliments, and wishes for a positive outcome. Kline's second coding scheme is for Brown and Levinson's "negative face" (hereafter, "autonomy"), which is the amount of freedom granted to another to define his/her own face or course of action. This scheme ranges from strategies which deny autonomy through such things as threats, orders, and pressuring to strategies which support autonomy through such things as giving deference and encouraging the other to deal with feelings without obligations.

Kline's coding schemes bear some similarities to the one developed by Jablin (1978) for message responses in open versus closed communication climates.[1] But the measurement of face support requires more specific inferences about a person's competency and how much autonomy will be granted during task performance than Jablin's scheme allows. Further, performance feedback measures such as the one developed by Ilgen, Hobson and Dugoni (1980) or the more general Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (Stogdill, 1963) which measures consideration behavior are not suitable because they are perceptually based and do not contain categories for coding messages. Thus, Kline's coding schemes appear best suited to the types of messages expected for this topic of controlling poor performance.

One purpose of this study is simply to describe the face support that occurs in a manager's communication to a poor performing subordinate over the sequence of violation and control moves that occur (hereafter, "control sequence"). Other than the fact that we would expect the amount of face support to decline generally as a problem drags on, very little is known about the amount of face support

provided by managers in the control sequences. Research findings from the performance feedback literature appear equivocal. For example, it is known that the subordinate's performance determines the feedback that a manager gives; i.e., the more positive the performance, the more positive the feedback (Barrow, 1976; Greene, 1975; Hinton & Barrow, 1975; Lowin & Craig, 1968). However, this relationship holds truer for positive feedback that for negative feedback. According to Hinton and Barrow (1975, p. 140) "individuals tend not to reinforce others according to strict behavioral modification principles of appropriately punishing behavior." This is because some managers may try to use rewards to help motivate a poor performer and/or managers may perceive negative consequences from giving negative feedback (Nord, 1969). Thus, since a poor performance may elicit either positive or negative reinforcement, face support may be high or low since reinforcement can be conceptualized as evaluations of one's competency and the amount of personal control which is granted. Thus, the following research question is posed:

RQ: Are there identifiable patterns of use of positive face and autonomy by managers in the control sequences?

Not only do we know little about how face support is used in the control sequences, but we also lack knowledge regarding the predictors of face support. Kline's research which comes from a constructivist's perspective, suggests two: cognitive complexity and abstractness. The constructivists argue that an individual perceives the world through a system of bi-polar dimensions or constructs, i.e., mechanisms through which another's behavior is interpreted, evaluated and anticipated (Delia, 1977; Delia & O'Keefe, 1979; Kelly, 1955). Further, because of age and social experience, some individuals possess construct systems which are more complex, that is, more differentiated in terms of numbers of constructs, and more abstract, that is, more psychologically based (Crockett, 1965;

Scarlett, Press & Crockett, 1971). Kline found a relationship between construct system complexity and abstractness and the level of face support. She argues that individuals with more developed construct systems will be better able to perceive the communication relevant attributes of another, more aware of the identity relevant implications inherent in a persuasive situation, and thus more likely to use face saving strategies.

Thus, based on Kline's research, the following hypotheses are posed:

H1: Cognitive complexity will be positively related to the level of positive face and autonomy provided by the manager.

H2: Cognitive abstractness will be positively related to the level of positive face and autonomy provided by the manager.

As a further extension of Kline's work, which employed hypothetical situations of superiors correcting subordinates with a nonmanagerial sample, the present authors felt that the link between cognition and face support should be examined in relation to important contextual and social-cognitive variables inherent in the control process. Both the performance feedback literature, as was mentioned, and the control literature (see for example, O'Reilly & Weitz, 1981) suggest that the overall performance of a subordinate, especially if positive, will influence a manager's actions regarding the subordinate's poor performance on a particular task. Further, the attributions of the manager (Mitchell, Green & Wood, 1981) have also been shown to influence the manager's actions. It is expected that individuals who are better performers and whose problems are perceived as situational rather than personal in origin will be perceived as deserving more interpersonal consideration, and thus more face support. The managers will likely do whatever they can to stop the decline of a good employee and preserve a viable working relationship. Direct approval of another's face and the freedom granted to another to resolve the problem are two ways this may be accomplished.

H3: The perceived overall performance of the subordinate will be positively related to the level of positive face and autonomy provided by the manager.

H4: The attribution of the problem to situation versus person factors will be positively related to the level of positive face and autonomy provided by the manager.

Finally, research on managers has frequently demonstrated that the use of consideration is related to better performance by employees (Fleishman & Harris, 1962; House & Filley, 1971; Trieb & Marion, 1969; Fleishman, 1957). Thus, in this context, it seems possible that use of face support might spur the employer to better performance, to try harder. As a result, the level of face support could influence the time between problem occurrences with increased levels of face support possibly delaying problem recurrence.

H5: The level of positive face and autonomy will be positively related to the length of time in between problem recurrence.

METHOD

Subjects

The sample consisted of 70 bank branch managers from two midwestern banks. The branches ranged in size from 3-60 total employees. The branch managers had an average tenure of 4.3 years with their branches. There were 47 males and 23 females.

Procedures

All data were collected in structured interviews (1 - 1½ hours in length). In an introductory letter, managers were asked to gather records and assured of confidentiality. During the taped interview, managers were asked to describe an incident or series of poor performance incidents involving a particular subordinate. Managers were not constrained in their choice of a problem; any behavior

by an employee that they considered unacceptable (e.g., tardiness, absenteeism, excess teller differences, inappropriate deeds, gossiping, etc.) was of interest so long as they took action. Therefore, the performance problems were expected to vary in terms of the length of the control sequences (i.e., how many times the problem occurred requiring managerial action) and the time between actions taken.

The interview schedule was then designed to accommodate any length of control sequence because Green et al. (1981) have shown that they will vary considerably. The interview schedule called for a basic set of questions to be asked regardless of the length of the control sequence and an additional set of questions for each iteration of the control sequence. The protocol for the iterative portion which occurred first in the interview is described in Figure 1. As the figure shows, Questions 3-12 were repeated (with the appropriate wording changes) for as many times as the problem occurred requiring that action be taken. Once this information was collected, the protocol measured a variety of other variables including attributions, overall performance, complexity, and abstractness which will be described later in the paper.

Figure 1 About Here

Face Support

Measures. The amount of face support was elicited by asking managers the question, "Imagine that I (the interviewer) am the employee, what did you say?" each time a manager took action. Transcripts were prepared from the taped responses. Face support was then evaluated for each conversation according to Kline's coding schemes for positive face and autonomy.

Positive Face was measured by a 5 level coding scheme, a copy of which can be found in Appendix A. Following Kline's procedures, each message was scored for the dominant level of positive face support. Interrater reliability by two independent coders on a random sample of 20% of the messages was .83 by Pearson correlation. Besides the positive face values at each time period, two other positive face scores were employed which characterized the start and finish of the control sequence. At the start of the control sequence, where one expects the greatest variation, an average positive face score was computed by summing up to the first three positive face values and dividing by the number summed. At the conclusion of the control sequence, the last positive face value was used.

Kline (1981) supported the predictive validity of positive face when it correlated significantly with awareness of identity management (r=.63), cognitive abstractness (r=.38), and in two studies cognitive complexity (r=.44 and r=.39). Females were also found to engage in more positive face support than males (r=.40). Validity was further established in the present study by examining the positive face scores of the messages which accompanied the actions managers took. The actions, which are described in Figure 1 (Question 5), were classified according to whether or not they were explicitly face threatening. Thus, warnings, probations, and terminations were seen as explicitly face threatening because of their overt punitive character, while discussion only, transfer and modify the job were seen as equivocal on that issue. The average positive face score accompanying explicitly face threatening actions should be significantly lower when compared with the average positive face score accompanying the other actions. Of the 222 actions taken with positive face scores, 49% were explicitly face threatening. As expected, a t test conducted between the two groups of actions showed that explicitly face threatening actions had significantly lower positive face scores

than the actions which were not explicitly face threatening (t=5.29, df=220, $p < .01$). Thus, we feel confident of the validity of this positive face measure.

Autonomy was measured by a five level coding scheme, a copy of which can be found in Appendix B. Each message was scored for the dominant level of autonomy. Interrater reliability by two independent coders for a random sample of 20% of the messages was .90 by Pearson correlation. Besides the autonomy values at each time period, the average autonomy value for the first three actions, and the last autonomy value were employed as variables in order to characterize the start and finish of the control sequence.

In previous research, Kline (1981) supported the predictive validity of autonomy when it correlated significantly with complexity (r=.38) and abstractness (r=.25). Females were also found to grant more autonomy than males (r=.59). Validity was further established in the present study by examining the autonomy scores of the messages which accompanied the actions managers took. As with positive face, this was accomplished by comparing the average autonomy score of the actions which were explicitly face threatening with the average autonomy score accompanying the actions which were seen as equivocal on threat to face. Of the 227 actions taken with autonomy scores, 49% were explicitly face threatening. As expected, a t test conducted between the two groups of actions showed that explicitly face threatening actions had significantly lower autonomy scores than the actions which were not explicitly face threatening (t=3.07, df=225, $p < .01$). Thus, we feel confident of the validity of this autonomy measure.

Verbal Reports as Data. A central question to this study is: can managers accurately recall enough of their conversations so that face support can be reliably coded. Although some researchers discredit the use of verbal reports (Nisbett & Wilson, 1970), others like Ericsson and Simon (1980), Smith and Miller (1978), and White (1980) argue that under certain conditions verbal reports are

valid and thoroughly reliable sources of information. Ericsson and Simon (1980) suggest four criteria for determining the reliability of retrospective verbal reports, each of which will be discussed below.

1) Like the critical incident technique (Flanagan, 1954), subjects are asked to report their memory for specific events as opposed to recall under interpretive probing which requires subjects to draw conclusions that they may not have previously drawn. In the present investigation, face support was measured during the iterative portion of the interview. An examination of those questions in Figure 1 reveals that managers were asked only to describe the specifics of the interaction (e.g., time, place, who initiated, content). Interpretive probing began only after all iterations were described and the measurement of face support completed.

2) Contextual information and prompts to subjects are available to aid recall from long term memory. In the context of poor performance, documentation of managers' treatment of poor performers is a protection mechanism, vital to an organization's ability to legally terminate a person (Asherman & Vance, 1981). Because the documentation occurs almost immediately after a manager takes action and because it describes in written form the details of the incident and the action taken (including the impact of the problem, what the manager said, the employee's response, etc.), this written material provides the opportunity for stimulated recall (see Hawes, 1972). In a letter forwarded to all managers one week prior to the interview, they were encouraged to familiarize themselves with and have available any written records or other documentation which would assist them in discussing the poor performer they chose. Approximately 70% of the managers used documentation during the interview.

3) An analysis of the task will show strong indications of the adequacy of verbalized information through a demonstration of how much incidental memorizing was done while performing the initial task. In order to discuss the ways

incidental memorizing was accomplished, it is important to recall a few things about the context. First, only a small percentage of a manager's employees are poor performers, and thus managers are infrequently faced with the task of disciplining. Second, when a performance problem does occur, these events are major breaks in the work relationship between a manager and employee because they may be signalling the decline of a work relationship and elimination of the employee. Thus, corrective situations are filled with large amounts of threat to the manager, the employee, and because of recent lawsuits, the organization itself. Kiesler and Sproull (1983) argue that salient events of this nature are better remembered. We suggest that it is due to the incidental memorizing that surrounds these events. For example, because of the importance and potential threat inherent in corrective situations, managers reported frequently that they rehearsed or planned what they were going to say. Soon after the discussion, at least 70% of the managers documented it for their own records and for legal protection. Finally, managers reported discussing their "approach" with their assistant managers and/or their immediate superiors during their weekly briefing sessions. All three of these exercises prompt managers to "relive" the actual event thus allowing incidental memorizing to occur.

In order to test this further, nine dyads participated in a two stage simulation involving a bank manager attempting to deal with a poor performing teller. The scenario subjects received set the stage for the managers' first and second discussion of the problem. The role plays were used and described in detail in previous work (Green & Liden, 1980), however, they were modified slightly to reflect the norms of the data provided by the present bank investigation (e.g., nature of infraction, demographics of role players, etc.). The dyads were comprised of seniors and graduate students in an upper division persuasion course at the University of Cincinnati. The dyad members

maintained their roles of either manager or teller for both discussions. The procedures were as follows:

a) All subjects were given the scenario for the first discussion to read. In the written open ended questionnaire which followed, they were asked to "plan" what they were going to say. This stage was designed to simulate the planning or rehearsal managers reported they engaged in prior to confrontation of the problem.

b) Subjects held their discussions which were tape recorded and later transcribed. The discussions ran an average of 15 minutes.

c) After the discussions, subjects were again asked to respond to a written questionnaire where they "documented" certain aspects to the problem. For example, managers were asked to assess cause, declare which action was taken, describe the nature of the subordinate's response, etc. This stage was designed to simulate the documentation activity managers are strongly encouraged to do for legal protection. Subjects were not given any indication that they would be seeing these questionnaires again.

d) Steps a-c were repeated for the second discussion with the first discussion becoming a part of the scenario for the second discussion.

e) Ten weeks later, subjects were returned the questionnaires they completed <u>after</u> the first and second discussions and asked to recall in written form as much of the conversations as they could remember. This procedure was designed to simulate the availability of documentation to the managers in the larger study during the interview process.

The managers' communication during the actual conversations and the recalled conversations (only the managers' recall was used) were then coded for the level of face support by two independent coders. While the recalled conversations were not perfect matches of the actual conversations, the subjects who role played managers demonstrated the ability to recall the dominant level of both positive face and autonomy which they used. The Pearson correlation coefficient between the actual and recalled conversation for positive face for the first discussion was .88 and for the second discussion was 1.00. The Pearson correlation coefficient between the actual and the recalled conversation for autonomy for both discussions was 1.00. This demonstration of stimulated recall does not mean that all or even some managers can accurately recall

all aspects of their conversations regardless of the time lapse until recall. It does, however, suggest that at least for the 70% of the managers who relied on documentation, it is not only possible but probable that managers could accurately recall certain aspects of their conversations, specifically the "thrust" of their message which contained the dominant level of positive face and autonomy which they provided. For some managers the time lapse until recall was less than ten weeks, for others it was greater. We would argue that accuracy would be affected by time lapse but also by the specificity of the documentation available.

4) The fourth criterion suggests that if it is easy to produce verbal reports without recourse to memory, then the adequacy of the verbal reports is questionable. We shall discuss this criterion in detail in our results section.

Other Measures

Cognitive Complexity. An adaptation of Crockett's (1965) Role Category Questionnaire was used in this study. Subjects were asked to "Describe this subordinate to the person who would succeed you as manager." Pretesting of this instrument necessitated anchoring the task to something a manager might conceivably do. Further, the task was shortened to one versus two or more role descriptions (e.g., good performer vs. poor performer). Because of the interaction patterns of this sample of subordinates, of which 82% are bank tellers, the poor performer affords the manager a greater opportunity for interaction and a far greater need to form specific impressions in order to discover the cause of the problem, arrive at a solution, and monitor the progress of the employee. For these reasons, cognitive complexity in this context is seen as maximally dependent upon the poor performer. Related support for this argument comes from Turner and Tripodi (1968) and Irwin, Tripodi and Bieri (1967). Complexity was measured by counting the number of non-redundant constructs. Interrater

reliability by two independent coders for 20% of the descriptions was .98 by Pearson correlation. Crockett's measure of complexity has demonstrated adequate psychometric properties and has been shown to be unrelated to verbal ability, intelligence, vocabulary, and verbal fluency (O'Keefe & Sypher, 1981).

Cognitive Abstractness. The same adaptation of Crockett's Role Category Questionnaire was used to measure abstractness in this study. After eliminating redundant terms, each construct was coded into a three level hierarchy, following a similar procedure used by Applegate and Delia (1980). Constructs coded at the first level made no reference to psychological states (e.g., physical characteristics, role descriptions). Constructs coded at the second level were "quasi-psychological" in that they referenced some psychological construct relevant to only type of context or relationship (e.g., specific interests and abilities). Constructs coded at the third level were psychological and represent some abstract, general psychological quality of the other (e.g., general motivations, character qualities). The ratings were summed across the coded constructs to yield a measure of cognitive abstractness. Interrater reliability by two independent coders for a random sample of 20% of the descriptions was .98 by Pearson correlation.

Subordinate Performance Rating. This variable was measured by asking the manager to rate the overall performance of the subordinate on a scale ranging from 1-5, with 1 equal to "poor performance" and 5 equal to "superior performance." It should be noted that this variables is not intended as a manipulation check on poor performance, as subordinates who perform well in other areas may manifest a specific problem that does not dominate managers' perceptions about their performance as a whole.

Since a performance rating is an elicited evaluative response, it was thought that a second measure of this construct could be obtained by coding the responses to our adaptation of Crockett's Role Category Questionnaire. The constructs were coded as either positive, negative or neutral from a manager's perspective. A ratio was then created by summing the number of positive terms and placing that value over the total number of evaluative terms. Thus, all neutral terms were deleted. Interrater reliability by two independent coders for a random sample of 20% of the descriptions was .97 by Pearson correlation.

The correlation between the performance rating and the evaluative descriptions was .55 ($p < .001$). Hierarchical regression on both the last positive face value and the last autonomy value shows that the incremental R^2 due to the addition of the evaluation variable is less than 1% for both dependent variables. However, the incremental R^2 due to the addition of the performance rating is 4% for positive face and 3% for autonomy. It is clear that the performance rating and the evaluative descriptions share some variance. Both the evaluative descriptions and the overall performance rating form relationships with the predictor variables which are highly similar. Since the inclusion of this variable other than as a validity check adds no additional information, it will not be included in our analysis.

Attribution of the Problem. This variable was measured by asking subjects two questions: 1) "To what extent do you see this employee's performance problems as being due to person related factors," and 2) "To what extent do you see his/her problems as being due to situational factors." Both questions provided response scales with 1 equal to "not at all" and 4 equal to "quite a bit." The response to the first question was then subtracted from the response to the second question following a procedure used by Green, Fairhurst and Liden (1981).

Length of Time Between Problem Recurrence. This variable was measured by asking managers, "How soon did the problem occur again?" The following response scale was used: 1 = within a couple of days, 2 = within a week, 3 = within 2 weeks, 4 = within a month, 5 = within 2 months, 6 = within 4 months, and 7 = within 8 months.

RESULTS

Description of the Performance Problems

Approximately 82% of the poor performers were bank tellers. Further 86% were female, 83% were Caucasian and 17% were black. The average age of the employee was 28, and the typical employee had been in the organization 3.7 years and held the present job 2.8 years. In Bank 1, the most commonly discussed performance problems were balancing (29%), customer relations (31%), absenteeism/tardiness (49%). In Bank 2 the most commonly discussed problems were balancing (49%), customer relations (31%), and staff conflicts (26%). The average number of problem occurrences was 7-10 times, and managers took action to alleviate the problem 6.4 times in Bank 1 and 3.5 times in Bank 2. Of the problems discussed, 80% had begun in or after 1980, and 20% prior to 1980. At the time of the interview, most of the problems had been resolved, but a few were still being dealt with. Finally, Table 1 presents the average time in months between actions taken.

Table 1 About Here

Research Question

In order to identify patterns of use face support by managers in the control sequences, a cluster analysis was performed to display the relationships between positive face, autonomy, and time. Because of a decreasing sample size due to problem resolution, and because cluster analysis requires complete data for each case, we performed three cluster analyses in order to maximize the greatest use of our data. The first cluster analysis was conducted using the first two actions which contained 86% (N=60) of our sample. The second clustering used the first three actions which contained 59% (N=41) of our sample, and the third clustering used the first four actions which contained only 40% (N=28) of our sample.

The centroid linkage algorithm was used to compute the distance between each pair of cases in the cluster analysis (Dixon, 1983). After two cases are joined, a centroid is formed by averaging the coordinates of each variable. Distances were then measured from this centroid to other candidates for membership in the cluster. Finally, a tally is kept of the number of cases in each cluster with the tally then used as a weight in the clustering.

Figure 2 presents the tree for the first cluster analysis for positive face and autonomy through the second action. An examination of the tree shows two rather strong clusters emerging. Cluster 1 in the figure, which contains 38% of the cases to be clustered, is characterized by Direct Disapproval (Positive Face, Category 1), No Autonomy (Autonomy, Category 1) for both the first and second actions. A substantial number of cases in that cluster (74%) have zero distances from one another, with the largest distance between any two centroids equal to 1.269 indicating the relative strength of the cluster. Cluster 2 in the figure contains 35% of the cases to be clustered, and is characterized by Indirect Disapproval (Positive Face, Category 2), Autonomy (Autonomy,

Category 4) for the first action, and Direct Disapproval (Positive Face, Category 1), No Autonomy (Autonomy, Category 1) for the second action. Again, a substantial number of cases (67%) have zero distances from one another with the greatest distance between any two centroids equal to 1.723 indicating relative cluster strength. The remaining 27% of the cases to be clustered are characterized by positive face and autonomy values which vary considerably with no discernible pattern in their use. The largest distance between any two centroids is equal to 4.801, more than twice the largest distance between any two centroids in the first two clusters.

Figure 2 About Here

The second cluster analysis was performed on positive face and autonomy through the third action. Recall that only 59% of the original sample is retained for this analysis. Because the tree duplicates the two cluster pattern in Figure 2, although slightly weaker, we shall only describe it. The first cluster which contains 44% of the cases to be clustered is characterized by Direct Disapproval (Positive Face, Category 1), No Autonomy (Autonomy, Category 1) for the first, second, and third actions. While only 27% of the cases have zero distances from one another, the largest distance between any two centroids equals 1.893. The second cluster contains 27% of the cases to be clustered and is characterized by Indirect Disapproval (Positive Face, Category 2), Autonomy (Autonomy, Category 4) for the first action, and Direct Disapproval (Positive Face, Category 1), No Autonomy (Autonomy, Category 1) for the second and third actions. A closer examination of the cluster reveals that it appears to break into two sub-clusters. The reason for this is because four cases manifest a slightly different pattern with Indirect Disapproval (Positive

Face, Category 2), Autonomy (Category 4) remaining through the second action and then switching to Direct Disapproval (Positive Face, Category 1), No Autonomy (Autonomy, Category 1) for the third. In this second cluster, 45% of the cases have zero distances from one another with the largest distance between any two centroids equal to 2.463. The remaining cases to be clustered comprise 29% of the total cases to be clustered and are characterized by positive face and autonomy values which vary considerably with no discernible pattern. The largest distance between two centroids is equal to 4.801, which is approximately twice the largest distance between any two centroids in the first two clusters.

The third cluster analysis was performed through the fourth action with only 40% of the sample. We do not present the results because again, they duplicate the two cluster structure found in the previous two cluster analyses although in a slightly weaker fashion.

On the basis of the cluster analyses, we may conclude the following about the research question: One group of managers adopted the Direct Disapproval (Positive Face, Category 1), No Autonomy (Autonomy, Category 1) combination from the start and maintained that approach at least through the fourth action. A second group of managers adopted the Indirect Disapproval (Positive Face, Category 2), Autonomy (Autonomy, Category 4) combination for the first action, but switched to Direct Disapproval (Positive Face, Category 1), No Autonomy (Autonomy, Category 1) for subsequent actions. Finally, a third and much smaller group of managers employed positive face and autonomy combinations which varied considerably with no discernible pattern to their use.

At this point, a more parsimonious description of the distributional and sequential structure of the data would be afforded by a Markov analysis. Specifically, transition probabilities computed from the data should be examined for the extent to which they "fit" the Markovian assumptions of homogeneity,

stationarity and order. According to Hewes (1979, p. 70) "knowledge that a process is Markovian indicates that any transition probability from t+n to t+n+1 is constant regardless of the value of n (stationarity), does not change depending upon the state occupied at t+n-1 (first order process), and is equal for all subgroups in the sampled population (homogeneity)."

On the basis of the cluster analyses, we would hypothesize the existence of a first order process for the cluster which was comprised of Direct Disapproval (Positive Face, Category 1), No Autonomy (Autonomy, Category 1) through the fourth action. We would also hypothesize the existence of a second order process for the cluster which was comprised of the Indirect Disapproval (Positive Face, Category 2), Autonomy (Autonomy, Category 4) for the first action, and Direct Disapproval (Positive Face, Category 1), No Autonomy (Autonomy, Category 1) for the remaining actions. While insufficient N's for the cluster analysis performed through the third action (N=18 for the first cluster and N=11 for the second cluster) prevents this analysis for this data set, it represents a promising direction for future research.

Hypotheses 1-5

Tables 2 and 3 present the correlations between the face support variables and the predictor variables in this study. Table 4 presents the intercorrelations of the predictor variables. Table 2 reveals that the last positive face value and the last autonomy value correlate .58 ($p < .001$). Examination of this relationship reveals that 67% of the cases fell into the first scale value for both variables. As noted in the cluster analyses, this is due to the fact that the conclusion of the control problem has been reached in most of the cases and the repeated interactions culminate in both low levels of positive face and autonomy. Thus, the covariance of these variables may largely be due to the

correlation around this one scale point. Eliminating the "1" response does attenuate the correlation between the last positive face value and the last autonomy value somewhat (r=.34). For this reason, and because there are substantive reasons for treating these measures differently and they form different relationships with the variables of interest in this study, they will be analyzed separately. Table 2 also reveals the following:

1) Cognitive complexity and abstractness are unrelated to the last positive face value, and the positive face values for the first through the fifth actions. Thus, for positive face we do not find support for Hypotheses 1 and 2 as stated.
2) The overall performance rating of the employee is positively related to the last positive face value and several positive face values for the first through the fifth actions. Thus, for positive face we find support for Hypothesis 3.
3) The attribution of the problem to situation versus person factors is positively related to positive face only for the third action, while unrelated to the last positive face value. Thus, for positive face, we find weak support for Hypothesis 4.
4) The positive face values for the first through fourth actions are unrelated to the length of time in between problem recurrence following those actions. Thus, for positive face, we do not find support for Hypothesis 5.

Table 2 About Here

Multiple regressions on the last positive face value showed that cognitive complexity, cognitive abstractness, the overall performance rating of the employee, and attribution of the problem accounted for 15% of the variance in

the level of positive face support. Multiple regressions on the average positive face value for the first three actions showed these same set of predictors to account for 13% of the variance in the average level of positive face support.

Table 3 reveals the following:

1) Cognitive complexity and abstractness are unrelated to the last autonomy value, and the autonomy values for the first through the fifth actions. Thus, for autonomy we do not find support for Hypotheses 1 and 2 as stated.
2) The overall performance rating of the employee is positively related to autonomy for the third action, while unrelated to the last autonomy value. Thus, for autonomy we find weak support for Hypothesis 3.
3) The attribution of the problem to situation versus person factors is unrelated to the last autonomy value and the autonomy values for the first through fifth actions. Thus, for autonomy we do not find support for Hypothesis 4.
4) The autonomy values for the second and third actions are positively related to the length of time in between problem recurrence following those actions. Thus, for autonomy we find moderate support for Hypothesis 5.

Table 3 About Here

Multiple regressions on the last autonomy value showed that cognitive complexity, cognitive abstractness, the overall performance rating of the employee, and the attribution of the problem accounted for 10% of the variance in the level of autonomy. Multiple regressions on the average autonomy value for the first three actions showed these same predictors to account for 8% of the variance in the average level of autonomy.

Table 4 About Here

Kline's research shows that cognitive complexity and abstractness are positively correlated with the level of face support. However, in this study it is clear that the performance rating of the employee is the better predictor for positive face and autonomy. It may be that employees with poor overall performance ratings are not seen as deserving or worth the effort to provide face support, regardless of whether a manager is complex and abstract enough to provide it. By contrast, employees deserving face support because of good overall performance should bring to the surface individual differences in a manager's ability to provide it. Thus, the performance rating may moderate potential relationships between face support and the cognitive variables.

To see if performance moderates the cognition-face support relationship, a median split was performed on the performance rating of the employee. Table 5 presents the correlations between the cognitive variables and the average face support values for the first three actions for performance ratings above and below the median. The table shows that the performance rating does appear to moderate the relationship between the cognitive variables and autonomy as expected. It does not moderate the cognition-positive face relationahip, however. The correlations between complexity and abstractness and the face support variables for managers with employees below the median on performance are all near zero as expected. Contrary to the positive relationships expected, the results show a near significant negative relationship between complexity and the average autonomy value for the first three actions and a significant correlation between abstractness and the average autonomy value for the first three actions for managers with employees above the median on performance. (The pattern of correlations is very similar when the median split is performed on the evaluative

descriptions.) While the results of the test of the difference between the high and low performance rating correlations using Fisher's r to Z transformation are not significant at .05, they do approach significance at .06 and .12 for abstractness and complexity, respectively. Because of the general trend of these findings, we believe the differences between these correlations are of practical significance.

Table 5 About Here

DISCUSSION

This study began with a research question which originated out of our desire to learn the patterns of use of face support by managers in the control sequences. The cluster analyses produced two identifiable patterns of face support usage through the fourth action. The first pattern consisted of Direct Disapproval of another (e.g., criticism, reprimands, etc.) and No Autonomy (e.g., threats and orders) from the very start of the control sequence onward. This pattern is quite close to what Maier and Danielson (1956) labeled as the "punitive approach" to controlling poor performance. We expected this approach to characterize the later stages of the control sequence. We did not know it would be so prominent in the early exchanges.

The second pattern consisted of Indirect Disapproval of another and Autonomy for the first action which then was quickly abandoned for the punitive approach described above. A closer examination of the actual content of the Indirect Disapproval category of positive face showed the frequent use of 1) questions to the subordinate as to why the problem was occurring, and to a lesser extent, 2) castigations that assumed the employee was misguided or

unaware. Likewise, an examination of the messages which fell into the Autonomy category showed that all but a few were questions by managers asking subordinates for suggestions as to how to correct the performance problem (e.g., "Do you have any suggestions as to how we can help you work more effectively?"). Thus, early in the control sequence, some managers rely on questioning to discover the source of the problem and ways it can be resolved. This approach comes closest to what Maier and Danielson (1956) labeled as a "problem solving" approach to controlling poor performance.

As was suggested earlier, a larger sample size would allow a more parsimonious description of the clustered data. If a first and second order Markov process was found to characterize the punitive and problem solving groups of managers respectively, a larger sample size would also allow us to ask why managers in the problem solving group appear to quickly abandon this approach for a more punitive one. Do they get answers to their questions or are they thwarted in their information seeking attempts because as Goody (1978, p. 39) explains:

> But if roles are very clearly defined . . . then the role expectations will bias the interpretation of any questions asked. Thus, it is very difficult for a person in a clearly defined authority role to ask a pure information question--that is, to ask a question which is perceived as being just about facts and not also about fixing responsiblity or threatening control.

What Goody is suggesting is that subordinates are incapable or unwilling to see managers' questions as "strictly fact finding," without also feeling blamed. We can only speculate but if the managers' questions cause subordinates to feel defensive, then a common defensive reaction is to withhold or distort information (Gibb, 1961). By withholding or distorting information, the subordinate negatively reinforces the manager for this posture and the manager quickly abandons questioning routines for a more punitive stance. Given the laborious

data collection procedures (extended interviews) and a shrinking sample size due to problem resolution, acquiring a sufficient sample is a formidable problem that must be overcome to answer the questions raised here.

One final point should be made about the punitive and problem solving approaches. In discussions with branch and personnel administrators in the banks we studied, they advocated the use of the punitive approach only after the problem solving approach or other strategies based on high levels of positive face and autonomy failed. Yet, in the field we find the punitive approach is quite strong, the problem solving approach is used to a lesser degree, and there is no evidence to suggest the presence of other strategies based on high levels of positive face and autonomy. There is a clear discrepancy between what these administrators see as desirable and what their managers are using. This discrepancy may be due to bank administrators' tendency to want to give socially desirable answers, a lack of sufficient training given to their managers, and/or a lack of awareness as to what their managers feel really works in their branch environments.

When the positive face and autonomy values over time were correlated with the predictor variables, some interesting patterns emerged. First, contrary to Kline's research, cognitive complexity and abstractness showed no simple relationship to any positive face or autonomy values. Because the overall performance rating of the subordinate was correlated with several positive face values and one autonomy value, it was thought that the overall performance could be moderating the relationship between cognition and face support. We expected near zero relationships between our cognitive and face support variables for managers with employees with poor performance ratings, and this was borne out by the data. Based on Kline's research, we expected positive correlations between our cognitive and face support variables for managers with employees with good performance ratings. Instead, we found negative relationships

between complexity and abstractness and our average autonomy values across the first three actions. This counter-intuitive finding was perplexing until we examined the content of the high autonomy messages. As stated previously, the use of high autonomy face support by managers in this sample was tantamount to asking their employees for suggestions as to how to resolve the problem. It may be that less cognitively complex and abstract managers engage in high autonomy face support, that is, ask subordinates how to solve the problem, not because they see the value in allowing the employee to reason through the situation, but because they have no solutions of their own. It is both logical and easy to ask for suggestions, and the managers may feel that they have simply nowhere else to turn. Because of the tentative nature of our findings, more research is needed to support this i[illegible]etation. Nevertheless, these findings do suggest other factors in a relati[illegible] may moderate the relationship between cognition and face support, a possib[illegible] largely ignored by Kline's work.

This study also s[illegible]d that autonomy for the second and third actions was positively correla[illegible]ith the length of time in between problem recurrence following those a[illegible]ions. This appears justifiable in that subordinate generated solutions to performance problems may mean greater commitment to correct the problem and its less frequent recurrence. It is interesting that autonomy for the first action was not correlated with the length of time in between problem recurrence following that action. One can only speculate, but it may be that the subordinate is unsure of how to respond to the manager's initial autonomy offer, and only when it is extended a second time does the subordinate treat the gesture as a sincere one. Or, perhaps the second occurrence prompts problem solving in earnest by both manager and subordinate.

Attribution of the problem to situation versus person factors was not a good predictor in this study. The summary judgment we used as an attributional

measure may have limited its power. It may well be that the attributional variables will only impact the level of face support when it is measured at the time it is offered.

This last issue points to some limitations of this study. We do not have "real-time" longitudinal data that would afford us the opportunity to examine the impact of our predictor social-cognitive and contextual variables on face support as the control sequences unfold. Not only would we expect the attributional variable to play a greater role in predicting face support, but the relationship between the cognitive and attribution variables may emerge as a strong predictor.

Also, we have gathered self report data of face support used over an extended period of time. Because of the sensitive nature of this topic, it is nearly impossible to observe and tape an actual conversation between a manager and a poor performing subordinate which would clearly be preferable. We do, however, present a case for the validity of our verbal reports. First, managers were asked to recall their memory for specific events as opposed to recall under interpretive probing. Second, documentation, at least for 70% of our managers, provided the opportunity for stimulated recall. Third, incidental memorizing of the actual event was strongly argued on the basis of three opportunities to relive the experience. We have not yet discussed our fourth point, however, which suggests that if it is easy to produce verbal reports without recourse to memory, then the adequacy of the verbal reports is questionable. The central question as we see it is how easy is it for managers to fake a response, and in the process appear more competent than they truly are. This would be a viable possibility were it not for the results we obtained. A careful examination of our data will show that of the five levels of positive face, the majority of managers reported using the lowest possible level which was Direct Disapproval

(Positive Face, Category 1) either from the first or second discussion onward. In the case of autonomy, the majority of managers also reported using the lowest level which was No Autonomy (Autonomy, Category 1). While another large group reported using Autonomy (Autonomy, Category 4), nearly all of those managers fell into only one of the five subcategories (questioning) of Category 4. We expect that if managers were going to fake their responses, it would be in the socially desirable direction of more competency in the case of positive face, and with more variance in response selection in the case of autonomy. Also, the other alternative hypothesis regarding reliance on memory is the presence of a schema (Tesser, 1978) or script (Abelson, 1976) in which an individual avoids conscious thinking and acts automatically on the basis of highly similar past experiences. As Langer (1978) suggests, however, scripted behavior is not done when it is effortful, interrupted, a novel situation, or "something out of the ordinary." We have already made a case for the fact that corrective situations are infrequent, and each is quite unique in terms of the performers and the information which becomes available at different times in the control process. Consequently, we would argue that scripted behavior does not apply. In the final analysis, for the above reasons, we feel our methods yielded reasonably valid data. Moreover, the interpretation of our data is consistent with our own real time observations of how managers handled performance problems, limited as those may be.

In summary, reconstructing the control sequences has helped us to discover that some managers begin with a problem solving approach but quickly abandon it for a more punitive one, while other managers rely on a punitive approach exclusively throughout the control sequence. The use of the entire control sequence of messages is a necessary tool to better understanding why these two approaches surfaced as they did, and overall management styles for dealing with ineffective performers.

Further, we have taken the cognition-face support relationship and placed it within a specific context. We have found evidence to suggest that other variables not only predict the level of face support but may moderate the cognition-face support relationship. Specifically, the overall performance of the subordinate may be a motivating factor for managers in deciding whether to engage in face support strategies. It follows that only when a manager is motivated to offer it does the issue of whether he/she is capable of offering it become relevant. More research needs to be done, however, to explore our finding that managers who are less cognitively complex and abstract use more high autonomy messages containing questions. A larger sample size and exploring managers' rationales for their strategy choices may be a good starting place.

The questions answered and raised by this study appear to point the way towards new directions in future research on this topic.

Footnotes

[1]Jablin's message responses are: 1) "Confirmation" which has positive content and positive relational feedback; 2) "Disagreement" which has negative content and positive relational feedback; 3) "Accedence" which has positive content and negative relational feedback; 4) "Repudiation" which has negative content and negative relational feedback; and 5) "Disconfirmation" which has irrelevant content and irrelevant relational feedback. Kline's coding scheme can roughly be described in Jablin's terms as going from repudiating to disagreeing to primarily confirming responses.

Figure 1

Interview Protocol for Iterative Portion

1. Describe the problem.

2. Approximately how many times did the problem occur?

3. When did the problem first occur? ___ Month ___ Year

4. How many times did the problem occur before you took your first action?

5. What was your first action in response to the problem? Check as many as apply.

____ 1) discussion; inquired about the problem
____ 2) warning (oral or written)
____ 3) probation
____ 4) modify the job (additional training or changing job procedures)
____ 5) reassignment (transfer)
____ 6) termination
____ 7) other

6. Can you recall when you took this action? ___ Month ___ Year

7. Did your action involving talking with the subordinate?

____ No; Go to Question 13[1]
____ Yes; Continue

8. Who initiated the conversation?

9. Where did it take place?

10. Assume that I am the employee; what did you say to him or her?

11. Did the employee apologize, offer excuses, justifications, etc.? If so, what did he or she say?

12. Did the problem surface again and require you to take action?

____ No; Go to Question 13
____ Yes; Repeat Questions 3-12

[1]Question 13 begins the non-iterative portion of the questionnaire.

Figure 2

Cluster Analysis of Positive Face and
Autonomy Scores for the First and Second Actions

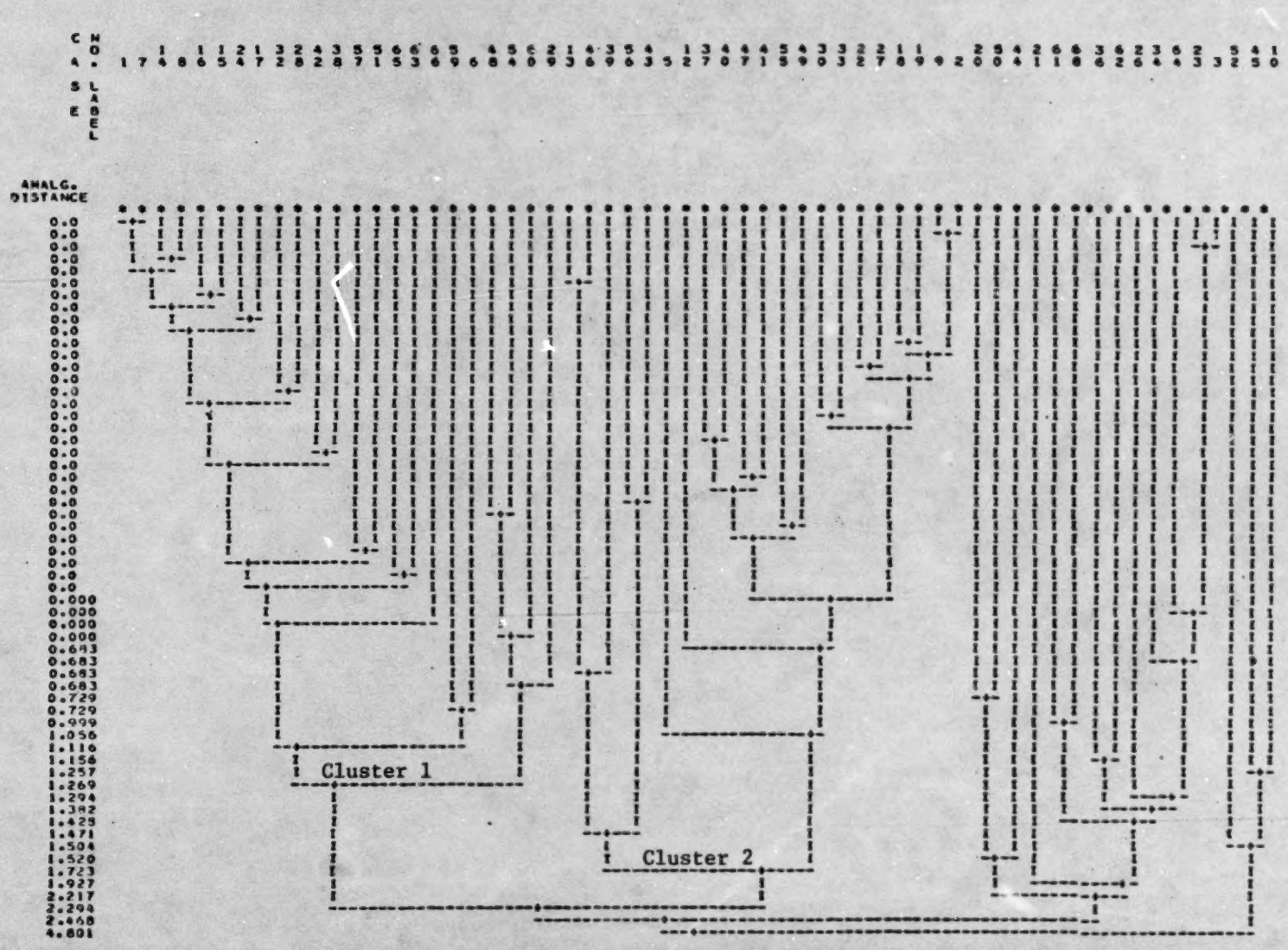

Table 1

Average Time in Months Between Actions Taken

Time	Mean	Std. Deviation	Range	Quartile 1-Quartile 3	N
Problem noticed					
First action	1.1	1.6	7	2	68
Second action	2.4	2.4	10	2	59
Third action	2.9	3.4	14	3	47
Fourth action	2.7	3.0	13	2.5	29
Fifth action	1.3	1.9	6	2	15
Sixth action	2.1	3.1	10	2.5	9
Seventh action	.75	.96	2	1.75	4

Table 2

Correlates of Positive Face[1,2]

	Last Positive Face Value	PF First Action	PF Second Action	PF Third Action	PF Fourth Action	PF Fifth Action
Cognitive Complexity	.05 (69)	-.12 (68)	.16 (63)	.04 (45)	.15 (28)	.25 (13)
Cognitive Abstractness	.06 (69)	-.13 (68)	.20 (63)	.00 (45)	.16 (28)	.37 (13)
Performance Rating	.32** (68)	.06 (67)	.25* (65)	.36** (45)	.22 (28)	.76** (13)
Attribution	.15 (69)	-.03 (68)	-.22+ (63)	.37** (45)	-.05 (28)	-.33 (13)
Problem Recurrence:[3]						
Following first action		.09 (59)				
Following second action			.25+ (45)			
Following third action				.24 (26)		
Following fourth action					.21 (14)	
Last Autonomy Value	.58*** (69)					

[1]The value of N is reflected in parentheses.

[2] + significant at .10
* significant at .05
** significant at .01
*** significant at .001

[3]The correlations between problem recurrence and positive face are Spearman correlations for rank orders.

Table 3

Correlates of Autonomy[1,2]

	Last Autonomy Value	A First Action	A Second Action	A Third Action	A Fourth Action	A Fifth Action
Cognitive Complexity	-.10 (69)	-.01 (68)	-.06 (61)	-.03 (44)	-.03 (28)	.05 (14)
Cognitive Abstractness	.03 (69)	-.04 (68)	-.08 (61)	-.04 (44)	-.05 (28)	.18 (14)
Performance Rating	.18 (68)	-.01 (67)	.10 (61)	.33* (44)	-.01 (28)	.42 (14)
Attribution	.13 (69)	-.01 (68)	-.19 (61)	.12 (44)	.03 (28)	-.15 (14)
Problem Recurrence:[3]						
Following first action		.00 (59)				
Following second action			.32* (45)			
Following third action				.37* (25)		
Following fourth action					.28 (14)	

[1] The value of N is reflected in parentheses.

[2] + significant at .10
* significant at .05

[3] The correlations between problem recurrence and autonomy are Spearman correlations for rank orders.

Table 4

Intercorrelations of Predictor Variables[1]

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Cognitive Complexity (1)					
Cognitive Abstractness (2)	.94***				
Performance Rating (3)	.17	.17			
Evaluation (4)	.22	.25*	.55***		
Attribution (5)	-.01	.00	-.01	-.07	

* significant at .05
*** significant at .001

Table 5

Zero-order Correlations of Cognitive Variables With Average Face Support (T1-T3) Controlling for Subordinate's Performance Rating

Subordinate's Performance Rating	Cognitive Complexity With		Cognitive Abstractness With	
	Positive Face (T1-T3)	Autonomy (T1-T3)	Positive Face (T1-T3)	Autonomy (T1-T3)
Low (N=40)	-.05	.03	-.01	-.03
High (N=29)	.00	-.33+	.06	.36*

+ $p < .10$

* $p < .05$

REFERENCES

Abelson, R. P. Script processing in attitude formation and decision making. In J. S. Carroll & J. W. Payne (Eds.), Cognition and Social Behavior. Potomac, MD: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 1976.

Annett, J. Feedback and human behavior. Baltimore, MD: Penguin Books, 1969.

Applegate, J. L. & Delia, J. G. Person-centered speech, psychological development, and the contexts of language usage. In R. St. Clair & H. Giles (Eds.), The Social Psychological Contexts of Language. Hillsdale, N.J.: Erlbaum, 1980.

Asherman, I. G. & Vance, S. L. Documentation: A tool for effective management. Personnel Journal, 1981, 8, 641-643.

Barrow, J. C. Worker performance and task complexity as causal determinants of leader behavior. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1976, 61, 446-454.

Bass, B. Stogdill's handbook of leadership. New York: The Free Press, 1981.

Brown, P. & Levinson, S. Universals in language usage: politeness phenomena. In E. N. Goody (Ed.), Questions and politeness. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1978.

Bruning, J. L. & Kintz, B. L. Computational handbook of statistics. Glenview, Ill.: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1968.

Bureau of National Affairs Editorial Staff. Grievance guide. Washington, D.C.: Bureau of National Affairs, Inc., 1978.

Camman, C. & Nadler, D. Making effective use of control systems. In R. Hackman, E. Lawler & L. Porter (Eds.). Perspectives on behavior in organizations. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1977.

Crockett, W. H. Cognitive complexity and impression formation. In B. A. Maher (Ed.), Progress in experimental personality research (Vol. 2). New York: Academic Press, 1965.

Cummings, L. L. "Appraisal purpose and the nature, amount and frequency of feedback. Paper presented at the meeting of the American Psychological Association. Washington, D.C., September 1976.

Cusella, L. "The effects of feedback on intrinsic motivation: A propositional extension of cognitive evaluation theory from an organizational communication perspective. In D. Nimmo (Ed.), Communication Yearbook IV. New Brunswick, NJ: Transaction International Communication Association, 1980, 367-387.

Deci, E. L. Intrinsic motivation. New York: Plenum Press, 1975.

Delia, J. G. Constructivism and the study of human communication. Quarterly Journal of Speech, 1977, 63, 66-83.

Delia, J. G. & O'Keefe, B. J. Constructivism: The development of communication in children. In E. Wartella (Ed.), Children communicating. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage, 1979.

Dixon, W. J. (Ed.). BMDP statistical software. Berkeley: University of California Press, 1983.

Elkouri, F. & Elkouri, E. How arbitration works (3rd ed.). Washington, D.C.: Bureau of National Affairs, Inc., 1973.

Ericsson, K. A. & Simon, H. A. "Verbal reports as data." Psychological Review, 1980, 87, 215-251.

Evans, M. G. The effects of supervisory behavior upon worker perception of their path-goal relationships. Doctoral dissertation, Yale University, New Haven, Connecticut, 1968.

Flanagan, J. C. The critical incident technique. Psychological Bulletin, 1954, 51, 327-358.

Fleishman, E. A. A leader behavior description for industry. In R. M. Stogdill & A. E. Coons (Eds.). Leader behavior: Its description and measurement. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, Bureau of Business Research, 1957.

Fleishman, E. A. & Harris, E. F. Patterns of leadership behavior related to employee grievances and turnover. Personnel Psychology, 1962, 15, 43-56.

Fleishman, E. A., Harris, E. F. & Burtt, H. E. Leadership and supervision in industry. Columbus: Ohio State University, Bureau of Educational Research, 1955.

Gibb, J. Defensive communication. Journal of Communication, 1961, 11, 141-148.

Goffman, E. On face-work: An analysis of ritual elements in social interaction. Psychiatry: Journal for the Study of Interpersonal Processes, 1955, 18, 213-231.

Goody, E. N. Toward a theory of questions. In E. N. Goody (Ed.), Questions and Politeness. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1978.

Graen, G., Cashman, J. F., Ginsburgh, S. G. & Schiemann, W. Effects of linking-pin quality of working life of lower participants. Administrative Science Quarterly, 1977, 22, 491-504.

Graen, G., Novak, M. & Sommerkamp, P. The effects of leader-member exchange and job design on productivity and satisfaction: Testing a dual attachment model. Unpublished manuscript, University of Cincinnati, 1981.

Green, S. G., Fairhurst, G. T. & Liden, R. C. Control of ineffective performance: history and sequences. Unpublished manuscript, University of Cincinnati, 1981.

Green, S. G. & Liden, R. C. Contextual and attributional influences on control decisions. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1980, 65 (4), 453-459.

Greene, C. N. The reciprocal nature of influence between leader and subordinate. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1975, 60, 187-193.

Hackman, J. R. & Oldham, G. R. Development of the job diagnostic survey. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1975, 60, 159-170.

Hawes, L. C. The effect of interviewer style on patterns of dyadic communication. Speech Monographs, 1972, 39, 114-123.

Hewes, D. E. The sequential analysis of social interaction. Quarterly Journal of Speech, 1979, 65, 56-73.

Hinton, B. L. & Barrow, J. C. The superior's reinforcing behavior as a function of reinforcements received. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 1975, 14, 123-143.

House, R. J. & Filley, A. C. Leadership style, hierarchical influence and the satisfaction of subordinate role expectations: A test of Likert's influence proposition. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1971, 55, 422-432.

Ilgen, D., Fisher, C. & Taylor, M. S. Consequences of individual feedback on behavior in organizations. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1979, 64, 349-371.

Ilgen, D. R., Hobson, C. J. & Dugoni, B. C. Performance feedback in organizations: The development of a measure. Army Research Institute Technical Report No. 2, September, 1980.

Irwin, M., Tripodi, T. & Bieri, J. Affective stimulus value and cognitive complexity. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1967, 5, 444-448.

Jablin, F. M. Superior-subordinate communication: The state of the art. Psychological Bulletin, 1979, 86, 1201-1222.

Jablin, F. M. Message response and "openness" in superior-subordinate communication. In B. D. Ruben (Ed.), Communication Yearbook II. New Brunswick, NJ: Transaction Books, 1978.

Kelly, G. A. A theory of personality. New York: Norton, 1955.

Kiesler, S. & Sproull, L. Managerial response to changing environments: Perspectives on problem sensing from social cognition. Administrative Science Quarterly, 1982, 27, 548-570.

Kline, S. L. Construct system development and face support in persuasive messages: Two empirical investigations. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the International Communication Association, Minneapolis, MN, 1981.

Langer, E. J. Rethinking the role of thought in social interaction. In J. Harvey, W. Ickes & R. Kidd (Eds.), New Directions in Attribution Research, Vol. 2. Hillsdale, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Assoc., 1978, pp. 35-58.

Larwood, L., Rand, P. & Den Hovanessian, A. Sex differences in response to simulated employee discipline cases. Personnel Psychology, 1979, 32, 539-550.

Lawshe, C. H. & Nagle, B. G. Productivity and attitude toward supervisor. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1953, 37, 159-162.

Liden, R. C. Contextual and behavioral factors influencing perceptions of ineffective performance and managerial responses. Doctoral dissertation, University of Cincinnati, 1981.

Lowin, A. & Craig, J. R. The influence of level of performance on managerial style: An experimental object-lesson in the ambiguity of correlational data. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 1968, 3, 440-458.

Maier, N. R. F. & Danielson, L. E. An evaluation of two approaches to discipline in industry. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1956, 40 (5), 319-323.

Miner, J. B. & Brewer, J. F. The management of ineffective performance. In M. Dunnette (Ed.), Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology. Chicago: Rand McNally, 1976.

Mitchell, T., Green, S. & Wood, R. An attributional model of leadership and the poor performing subordinate: Development and validation. In B. Stau & L. Cummings (Eds.), Research in Organizational Behavior. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press, inc., 1981.

Mitchell, T. R. & Wood, R. E. An empirical test of an attributional model of leaders' responses to poor performance. Proceedings of the National Meetings of the Academy of Management. Atlanta, 1979.

Nisbett, R. E. & Wilson, T. D. Telling more than we can know: Verbal reports on mental processes. Psychological Review, 1977, 84, 231-279.

Nord, W. R. Beyond the teaching machine: The neglected area of operant conditioning in the theory and practice of management. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 1969, 4, 375-401.

O'Keefe, B. J. & Delia, J. G. Impression formation processes and message production. In M. E. Roloff & C. R. Berger (Eds.), Social cognition and communication. Beverly Hills, CA: Sale, 1982.

O'Keefe, D. J. & Sypher, H. E. Cognitive complexity and the relationship of cognitive complexity to communication. Human Communication Research, 1981, 8, 72-92.

O'Reilly, III, C. A. & Weitz, B. A. Managing marginal employees: The use of warnings and dismissals. Administrative Science Quarterly, 1980, 467-483.

Ouchi, W. G. Markets, bureaucracies and clans. Administrative Science Quarterly, 1980, 25, 129-141.

Payne, R. B. & Hauty, G. T. The effect of psychological feedback upon work decrement. Journal of Experimental Psychology, 1955, 50, 343-351.

Reeves, T. K. & Woodward, J. The study of managerial control. In J. Woodward (Ed.), Industrial organizational behavior and control. London: Oxford University Press, 1970.

Rosen, B. & Jerdee, T. H. Factors influencing disciplinary judgments. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1974, 59 (3), 327-331.

Scarlett, H. H., Press, A. N. & Crockett, W. H. Children's descriptions of peers: A Wernerian development analysis. Child Development, 1971, 42, 439-453.

Smith, E. R. & Miller, F. D. Limits on perceptions of cognitive processes: A reply to Nisbett and Wilson. Psychology Review, 1978, 85, 355-362.

Stoeberl, P. A. & Schneiderjans, M. J. The ineffective subordinate: A management survey. Personnel Administrator, February 1981, 72-76.

Stogdill, R. M. Manual for the leader behavior description questionnaire - Form XII. Columbus: Ohio State University, Buresu of Business Research, 1963.

Tesser, A. Self-generated attitude change. Advances in experimental social psychology. Vol. 11. New York: Academic Press, 1978, 289-338.

Trieb, S. E. & Marion, B. W. Managerial leadership and the human capital of the firm. Columbus: Ohio State University, College of Agriculture, 1969.

Turner, R. & Tripodi, T. Cognitive complexity as a function of type of stimulus objects judged and affective stimulus value. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1968, 32, 182-185.

White, P. Limitations on verbal reports of internal events: A refutation of Nisbett and Wilson and of Bem. Psychological Review, 1980, 87, 105-112.